

Original citation:

Kunar, Melina A., Watson, Derrick G. , Cole, Louise and Cox, Angeline. (2013) Negative emotional stimuli reduce contextual cueing but not response times in inefficient search. Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology . pp. 1-17. ISSN 1747-0218 (In Press)

Permanent WRAP url:

<http://wrap.warwick.ac.uk/57523/>

Copyright and reuse:

The Warwick Research Archive Portal (WRAP) makes this work by researchers of the University of Warwick available open access under the following conditions. Copyright © and all moral rights to the version of the paper presented here belong to the individual author(s) and/or other copyright owners. To the extent reasonable and practicable the material made available in WRAP has been checked for eligibility before being made available.

Copies of full items can be used for personal research or study, educational, or not-for-profit purposes without prior permission or charge. Provided that the authors, title and full bibliographic details are credited, a hyperlink and/or URL is given for the original metadata page and the content is not changed in any way.

Publisher's statement:

This is an Author's Accepted Manuscript of an article published in [include the complete citation information for the final version of the article as published in the Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology 2013, copyright Taylor & Francis, available online at: <http://www.tandfonline.com/10.1080/17470218.2013.815236>.

A note on versions:

The version presented here may differ from the published version or, version of record, if you wish to cite this item you are advised to consult the publisher's version. Please see the 'permanent WRAP url' above for details on accessing the published version and note that access may require a subscription.

For more information, please contact the WRAP Team at: publications@warwick.ac.uk



<http://wrap.warwick.ac.uk>

Negative Emotional Stimuli Reduce Contextual Cueing but not Response Times in Inefficient Search

Melina A. Kunar, Derrick G. Watson, Louise Cole &
Angeline Cox

Department of Psychology,
The University of Warwick,
Coventry,
CV4 7AL,
UK
Tel: +44 2476 522133
Email: m.a.kunar@warwick.ac.uk

Running Header: Negative stimuli reduce CC but not RTs

Abstract

In visual search previous work has shown that negative stimuli narrow the focus of attention and speed reaction times (RTs). This paper investigates these two effects by first, asking whether negative emotional stimuli narrows the focus of attention to reduce the learning of a display context in a contextual cueing task, and second whether exposure to negative stimuli also reduce RTs in inefficient search tasks. In Experiment 1 participants viewed either negative or neutral images (faces or scenes) prior to a contextual cueing task. In a typical contextual cueing experiment RTs are reduced if displays are repeated across the experiment compared with novel displays that are not repeated. The results showed that a smaller contextual cueing effect was obtained after participants viewed negative stimuli compared to when they viewed neutral stimuli. However, in contrast to previous work, overall search RTs were not faster after viewing negative stimuli (Experiments 2 to 4). The findings are discussed in terms of the impact of emotional content on visual processing and the ability to use scene context to help facilitate search.

Introduction

In everyday life people search the world for objects. For example, we may search for a pen on a messy desk or look for a friend in a crowd. The process of how people attend to their visual environment is complex and can be influenced by many factors. For example, previous studies have shown that emotional stimuli can affect our search behaviour and that our attention can rapidly orientate to threats (e.g. Öhman, Flykt, and Esteves, 2001, Fox et al., 2007 and Flykt, 2006). Scientists can investigate visual search processes in the laboratory by asking participants to search for a pre-specified target among distractors and record their reaction times (RTs) and/or error rates. From these studies we know that the visual system has a number of mechanisms which can be used to filter out irrelevant information and prioritize important and relevant information (e.g., Klein, 1988; Watson & Humphreys, 1997, 1998; Treisman & Gelade, 1980; McLeod, Driver & Crisp, 1988; Abrams & Christ, 2003, 2005; see also Wolfe & Horowitz, 2004). Recent research has also shown that the surrounding context of a task can influence the search process. Chun and Jiang (1998) first demonstrated this by asking participants to search for a target letter T, among rotated distractor letter Ls. Unlike standard visual search experiments, half of the displays were repeated whilst the rest were seen only once within the experiment (unrepeated displays). The results showed that although participants demonstrated little explicit memory for repeated displays, RTs were nevertheless faster for the repeated displays than the unrepeated ones. This facilitation was called “contextual cueing” (CC, Chun & Jiang, 1998) and occurred because target presence became associated with the repeated layout of a display (Brady & Chun, 2007; Kunar & Wolfe, 2011).

There have been two main theories proposed to explain why contextual cueing occurs. One theory states that the context guides attention to the target location (Chun & Jiang, 1998). That is, the configuration of the distractors in the display guides attention to the target so that it was found faster (see also Johnson et al., 2007, for evidence of this theory using ERPs and Peterson & Kramer, 2001, for evidence using eye movements, although see Kunar et al., 2008a, for an alternative hypothesis of these latter results). However, a benefit in guidance should also have a measurable impact on improving search efficiency in contextual cueing (measured by a decrease in the RT x Set Size function, or search slopes, across time), yet this was not observed (Kunar et al., 2007, see also Wolfe et al., 2000 and Kunar et al., 2008b, who showed that search slopes for repeated displays did not decrease across time). From this Kunar et al. (2007) proposed a second theory, hypothesizing that the context instead speeds the response selection process (see also Schankin & Schubö, 2009, for further evidence of this theory using ERPs). That is, the amount of information that needs to accumulate before a person commits to a response is reduced in a familiar context where participants expect to see the target at a learned location. These theories differ in their explanation for how the attended context facilitates the search process. However, please note that both of these theories require participants to attend the context for learning to occur.

Brady and Chun (2007) recently investigated whether a contextual cueing effect occurs if only the immediately surrounding distractors of the target remained invariant. In their experiments they retained the configuration of the distractors within the quadrant of the target but randomly generated the distractor configurations in the remaining three quadrants. In this case the total configuration of the display was altered but the configuration surrounding the target remained the same. Their results showed that a robust contextual cueing effect remained provided that the distractors nearest the target predicted its location (see also Olson

& Chun, 2002). Please note, however, that this immediate context needed to be attended and processed in order to obtain a beneficial effect. Jiang and Chun (2001) showed that when the predictive context was not selectively attended, RTs to find the target did not differ from those of unrepeated displays. These results suggest that the context needs to fall within the focus of attention for a contextual cueing effect to occur.

Along with context, other work has also shown that the emotional valence of a stimulus has a powerful effect on visual processing. We examine the effects of emotional stimuli on attention further in this paper using two methods of investigation. First, we investigate the effect of emotional stimuli on the processing of a displays' context (using a contextual cueing task) and second, we investigate the effect of emotional stimuli on response times using an inefficient visual search task. Taking the first point, previous research has suggested that negative emotions lead to diminished processing of peripheral items and a narrowing of attention (Easterbrook, 1959, Fenske and Eastwood, 2003, Fredrickson, 1998, 2001, 2004, Wadlinger & Isaacowitz, 2006, Wells & Matthews, 1994). This focussing or narrowing of attention could occur in a number of situations including inducing social stress (Sanders, Baron & Moore, 1978, Huguet et al., 1999), creating ego threatening and time pressured situations (Chajut & Algom, 2003), threatening participants with electric shocks (Watchel, 1968) and presenting people with faces demonstrating negative emotions (Fenske & Eastwood, 2003). Fredrickson (2004) suggested a 'broaden-and-build' account to explain the data stating that while positive emotions widen the focus of attention to peripheral areas, negative emotions tend to reduce it. Furthermore, Chajut and Algom (2003) suggested that the data could be explained by an 'attention view' account whereby relevant and irrelevant stimuli undergo differential processing under negative conditions. In this case, negative emotions lead to fewer resources to process task-irrelevant peripheral stimuli and a narrowing

of attention to only focus on local task-relevant stimuli. That is, if negative emotional stimuli automatically capture attention this would leave fewer attentional resources available to attend to peripheral stimuli leading to an impairment in search¹.

Gable and Harmon-Jones (2010) recently investigated the narrowing of attention using emotional stimuli by asking participants to respond to either the global or local letters of a Navon stimulus after they had viewed a negative image. Navon letters consist of a large global letter (e.g. a letter H) comprised of many smaller local letters (e.g. letter Fs) and is typically used to measure attentional breadth (Navon, 1977). Gable and Harmon-Jones (2010) found that after viewing high-intensity negative stimuli (e.g., stimuli that promoted fear or disgust) participants responded faster to the local stimuli than to the global stimuli compared with when participants viewed neutral stimuli. The present study develops Gable and Harmon-Jones' (2010) findings to investigate whether viewing negative emotional stimuli can narrow attention within a contextual cueing task and thus impair the processing of a display's context to help find relevant information. Gable and Harmon-Jones' (2010) work suggests that following a negative image, individual stimuli were prioritised over global context. This leads to an interesting prediction. If attention becomes narrowed after viewing negative stimuli then participants are less likely to attend the context of a particular display when processing it. As individual items are prioritised rather than their relationships with neighbouring distractors then, if the emotional stimuli produced strong enough effects, even the benefit of a target having invariant nearby distractors (Brady & Chun, 2007) would be disrupted. It follows that viewing negative emotional stimuli should lead to a reduction in contextual cueing compared with previously viewing neutral stimuli. We investigated this in Experiment 1 in which we had participants search for a target letter T among distractor letter

¹ We would like to thank Anders Flykt for this suggestion.

Ls in a contextual cueing task. In this task half of the displays were repeated across the experiment (providing the target with a consistent predictive context) while the rest of the displays were novel.

The second aim of this paper was to test the general effect of emotional stimuli on visual search tasks – namely the prediction that presenting negative emotional stimuli prior to a visual search task speeds RTs overall. Previous studies have shown that when searching through emotional stimuli people are faster at searching for negative faces among positive ones (e.g. Blagrove & Watson, 2010; Frischen, Smilek, and Eastwood, 2008) and faster at responding to fear-relevant pictures (e.g. spiders and snakes) compared to fear-irrelevant stimuli (e.g. flowers and mushrooms, Öhman, Flykt, and Esteves, 2001 see also Fox et al., 2007 and Flykt, 2006). Using a different attentional paradigm, Olatunji et al. (2011) investigated whether showing emotional stimuli prior to a non-emotional visual search display influenced response time (see also Becker, 2009). Phelps and LeDoux (2005) have suggested that showing participants threatening stimuli leads to increased arousal levels and increases a participant's vigilance (see also Kapp et al., 1992). From this it has been hypothesised that showing people fearful stimuli may lead to an overall improvement in perception and attention. One reason for this may be because fearful stimuli are thought to increase amygdala activation, which feeds back information to the visual cortex and other attentional regions in the brain to enhance perceptual processing (Phelps, Ling & Carrasco, 2006, see also Anderson, Christoff, Panitz, De Rosa, & Gabrieli, 2003; Vuilleumier, Armony, Driver, & Dolan, 2001 for evidence of an interaction between fearful faces, the amygdala and attention). If these regions of the brain have been primed by the amygdala then it follows that they may be faster to respond to other subsequent stimuli (even if the subsequent stimuli have no emotional valence, per se, Phelps, Ling & Carrasco, 2006). Based on these findings,

Olatunji et al. (2011) predicted that showing people pictures of fearful faces (taken from the Karolinska Directed Emotional Faces, KDEF, database, Lundqvist, Flykt & Öhman, 1998) prior to a search display would increase overall arousal levels and decrease overall RTs in a visual search task. Their results concurred with this hypothesis and showed that participants responded more quickly to the target after being presented with a fearful face compared with other emotional expressions.

Note that in the task used by Olatunji et al. (2011) the facilitation effect was relatively small and participants were looking for a target which was uniquely salient in the display (the target was the only red circle present). This search task was distinctive in that with both the presence of the salient bottom-up colour cue and the strong top-down knowledge of the target colour, guided search theories predict that the target would already be highly activated on a visual saliency map (e.g. Wolfe, 2007; Wolfe, Cave & Franzel, 1989). Here the emotion of fear may have acted to further boost bottom up processes, producing faster RTs. However, this effect might not occur in displays where the target does not already produce strong activation either by bottom-up or top-down guidance. If instead a difficult search task was presented then any additional beneficial effect of fear may be lost in the ‘noisy’ process of actively searching the display. We investigated this possibility here by asking participants to search for a letter T among Ls – an inefficient search task known to afford little guidance (Wolfe, 2007, see Kunar et al., 2003, for examples) – after being presented with fearful stimuli. If the effect of fear is only apparent in searches where the target is already highly activated (i.e. for salient targets) then we would not expect to see a benefit.

Experiment 1 examined the effect of pre-exposure to negative and neutral emotional stimuli (faces and scenes) on contextual cueing. In this experiment a set of twenty emotional stimuli

were presented prior to the search task to set up an emotionally negative or emotionally neutral context in which to perform the search task (see also Pacheco-Unguetti et al., 2010 who manipulated emotion in this manner before the experimental task). According to Fredrickson's (2004) 'broaden-and-build' account, showing participants negative stimuli prior to the search task should change people's search strategy, causing them to have a narrower focus of attention throughout the experiment. Participants were shown negative or neutral stimuli taken from either the International Affective Picture System (IAPS, Lang, Bradley & Cuthbert, 2001, see Most et al., 2005, 2011, Olivers & Nieuwenhuis, 2006, for previous studies using these stimuli) or the Karolinska Directed Emotional Faces (KDEF) database (Lundqvist, Flykt & Öhman, 1998, see Olatunji et al., 2011, for examples) prior to the contextual cueing task², in which they had to search for a target T among distractor letter Ls. Crucially, in this experiment half of the search displays were repeated while the other half were not. The results showed that the contextual cueing effect was reduced after participants viewed the negative stimuli compared to the neutral stimuli, consistent with the hypothesis that negative stimuli reduced the focus of attention. However, in contrast to the work of Olatunji et al. (2011), there was no benefit to overall RTs after participants were shown negative stimuli.

Experiments 2 and 3 replicated the conditions of Olatunji et al. (2011) but used an inefficient search task where participants were asked to search for a target T among distractor letter Ls (which had a high degree of similarity to the target) rather than look for a uniquely salient target. In both experiments participants viewed an emotional face before each trial (following

² Past work in the literature has used either scene or face pictures to investigate the effect of emotion on attention (e.g. Pacheco-Unguetti et al., 2010 and Olatunji et al., 2011 respectively). Therefore, we used both types of stimuli in Experiment 1. However, as the results suggest that there was no difference in the type of negative stimuli used, in Experiments 2 to 4 we used only face stimuli to manipulate emotion.

the methodology of Olatunji et al., 2011). In Experiment 2 participants performed a target discrimination response task whilst in Experiment 3 participants performed a target localization task (similar to that used by Olatunji et al., 2011). Again, in contrast to the work of Olatunji et al. (2011), the results showed that there was no decrease in overall RTs after viewing fearful stimuli.

In Experiments 2 and 3, negative and neutral stimuli were presented directly before each search display. In contrast, in Experiment 4 we tested whether setting up a negative context before a series of inefficient search trials (as in Experiment 1) influenced participants' search performance. If participants' attentional focus was narrowed after viewing negative stimuli they may be less able to process multiple stimuli in one glance – leading to a greater number of shifts in attention before finding the target. This would have the effect of decreasing search efficiency (as measured by the RT x Set Size function). As in Experiments 2 and 3, there was no benefit to overall response times after being shown fearful stimuli. However, there was now a change in search efficiency such that people were *less* efficient at finding a target after viewing negative stimuli compared with when they viewed neutral stimuli. Taking the results of all four experiments together suggest that the RT advantage obtained after viewing fearful stimuli did not occur when using an inefficient search task.

Experiment 1

Participants:

Eighty-five participants (44 female, mean age = 23.1 years) took part in the experiment. All had normal or corrected to normal visual acuity. Given that each experimental condition lasted approximately 1 hour, to avoid effects of fatigue, a between participants design was

used, with participants divided between four conditions. There were 19 participants in the ‘Negative Scene’ condition, 24 participants in the ‘Negative Face’ condition, 18 participants in the ‘Neutral Scene’ condition and 24 participants in the ‘Neutral Face’ condition.

Apparatus and Stimuli:

Displays were generated and responses recorded using custom programs running on a PC attached to a 19” CRT monitor. The distractor items were white L shapes presented randomly in one of four orientations (0° , 90° , 180° or 270°) on a black background. The target item was a white T, rotated 90° left or right with equal probability. Each L contained a small offset ($\sim 0.3^\circ$) at the line junction to make search more difficult. All stimuli subtended $1.7^\circ \times 1.7^\circ$, at a distance of 57.4cm. Each display had a set size of 12 items (11 distractors and 1 target) with individual stimuli positioned within a 6 x 6 invisible matrix.

Procedure:

Participants completed a block of 448 trials divided into seven epochs of 64 trials. Within each epoch half of the trials were repeated; four displays were each repeated eight times per epoch. Thus, over 7 epochs, each repeated display was shown 56 times. In a repeated display, the locations of both the target and the distractors remained constant across trials, however, similar to previous work the orientation of each distractor and target was not assigned within a trial and could change across repeated displays. In the remaining trials (unrepeated displays), the configuration of the distractors was generated at random on each trial. In order to ensure that participants were not simply learning the absolute target location in repeated displays, in the unrepeated displays, targets appeared equally often in four locations, selected randomly at the beginning of the experiment, similar to previous work (e.g. Chun & Jiang, 1998, Kunar et al., 2007, 2008, 2011). However, these were not correlated with any of the

distractor configurations. On each trial participants responded to the orientation of the T by pressing ‘m’ if the bottom of the T pointed to the right and ‘z’ if the bottom of the T pointed to the left. Figure 1 shows an example display.

Figure 1 about here

In the Negative Scene condition, after a short practice session, participants were shown twenty negative stimuli taken from the International Affective Picture System (IAPS; Lang, Bradley & Cuthbert, 2001). Each image was shown for 3 seconds and had a mean rating of 3.46 for pleasantness and 4.95 for arousal on the IAPS scale. Immediately following the picture presentation, participants completed the experimental block of contextual cueing trials. Participants were then shown a presentation of twenty positive images (all taken from the IAPS database) to counter any potential effects of having viewed the negative stimuli and given a debriefing with the experimenter to discuss the negative pictures if they wished in case they found the pictures too distressing; none of the participants did.

The Negative Face condition was similar, except that twenty fearful faces from the Karolinska Directed Emotional Faces (KDEF) database (Lundqvist, Flykt & Öhman, 1998) were shown prior to the visual search displays. Stimuli were also presented for the shorter duration of 2 seconds each³. In the Neutral Scene condition participants saw twenty neutral IAPS stimuli (Lang, Bradley & Cuthbert, 2001) before the contextual cueing task. Each image was shown for 3 seconds and had a mean rating of 5.22 for pleasantness and 2.66 for

³ Two seconds was still more than enough time for participants to process each stimulus. Previous studies have shown emotional effects of negative stimuli can occur with presentation durations as short as 100 ms for each negative stimulus (e.g. Olatunji et al., 2011).

arousal on the IAPS scale. Finally in the Neutral Face condition twenty neutral faces from the Karolinska Directed Emotional Faces (KDEF) database (Lundqvist, Flykt & Öhman, 1998) were shown prior to the visual search displays.

Results and Discussion

The data from two participants were not analysed due to high error rates (over 90% in one condition) leaving data from 83 participants remaining. To examine the contextual cueing effect, RTs less than 200 ms (see also Kunar et al., 2006, 2007, 2008a, 2011) and RTs greater than 3 standard deviations above the mean of each cell (per condition for each participant) were removed as outliers. This led to the removal of 2.7% of the data. Mean correct RTs were entered into a mixed ANOVA with within-participant factors of Condition (Repeated versus Unrepeated) and Epoch, and between-participant factors of Stimuli (Scene versus Face) and Emotional Valence (Negative versus Neutral). The results showed that there was no difference in overall RTs depending on whether participants viewed the IAPS or KDEF stimuli before the contextual cueing experiment ($F < 1$). Neither were any of the interactions significant (all F s < 1.7 , p s > 0.18). As a result we pooled the RTs across Stimulus type into a Negative Stimulus group and a Neutral Stimulus group. Figure 2a shows the mean correct RTs across epochs for the repeated and unrepeated trials in the Negative Stimulus group and Figure 2b shows the mean correct RTs across epochs for the repeated and unrepeated trials in the Neutral Stimulus group.

A 2 (Emotional Valence: Negative group vs Neutral group) x 2 (Condition: Repeated vs Unrepeated) x 7 (Epoch) mixed ANOVA of between participant factor of Emotional Valence was conducted to determine whether the valence of the emotional stimuli previously viewed

influenced contextual cueing. Participants responded faster in repeated displays compared with unrepeated displays, $F(1, 81) = 13.8$, $p < 0.01$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.146$, and RTs decreased with epoch, $F(6, 486) = 147.6$, $p < 0.01$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.646$. There was also a Condition x Epoch interaction, $F(6, 486) = 3.2$, $p < 0.01$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.038$; RTs became faster over epoch for repeated displays compared with unrepeated displays. This shows that an overall contextual cueing effect was obtained. Please note that RTs decreased overall across epoch. This occurred for both the repeated trials and the unrepeated trials. RTs for unrepeated trials are thought to become faster across the experiment due to perceptual learning of the task and because participants become faster with practice. Crucially, however, RTs for the repeated trials showed a greater facilitation across the experiment. This occurred because participants had learned the context in the displays, which benefitted search by facilitating attentional guidance to the target (Chun & Jiang, 1998) and/or facilitating response selection (Kunar et al., 2007).

Of most importance, examining the effect of the emotional stimuli on contextual cueing, there was a significant interaction between Condition x Emotional Valence, $F(1, 81) = 6.2$, $p < 0.05$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.071$. The benefit of repeating a display was greater following neutral images than following negative images. There was no main effect of Emotional Valence, $F < 1$. However there was a significant Epoch x Emotional Valence interaction, $F(6, 486) = 2.3$, $p < 0.05$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.028$, in which RTs decreased more across epoch in the Neutral condition compared with the Negative condition. None of the other interactions were significant (all F s < 1).

There have been many ways to measure contextual cueing in the literature, with some studies showing a difference in RTs between the repeated and unrepeated trials across the first few

and the last few epochs (e.g. Olson & Chun, 2002) and others determining whether there was a difference in the last three epochs, where the contextual cueing effect was strongest (given that participants learned the context of the repeated displays in the preceding epochs, e.g. Chun & Jiang, 1998; Kunar, Flusberg & Wolfe, 2006; Kunar, Flusberg & Wolfe, 2008a; Kunar, Flusberg, Horowitz & Wolfe, 2007, Kunar & Wolfe, 2011). We conducted both of these additional analyses to further investigate the effect of negative stimuli on contextual cueing. To preview the results both of these measures showed a decreased contextual cueing effect in the negative condition compared to the neutral condition.

First, we averaged RTs over the first three epochs and compared them to RTs averaged over the last three epochs in a 2 (Emotional Valence: Negative group vs Neutral group) x 2 (Condition: Repeated vs Unrepeated) x 2 (First epochs vs last epochs) mixed ANOVA with Emotional Valence as a between participants factor. Similar to the above analysis participants responded faster in repeated displays compared with unrepeated displays, $F(1, 81) = 12.4$, $p < 0.01$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.133$, and RTs were faster in the last three epochs compared to the first three epochs, $F(1, 81) = 308.3$, $p < 0.01$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.792$. There was also a Condition x Epoch interaction, $F(1, 81) = 7.5$, $p < 0.01$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.085$, whereby the difference between RTs in the repeated and unrepeated trials was greater in the last three epochs compared to the first three epochs. Again this demonstrates the presence of an overall contextual cueing effect. Post-hoc t-tests showed that there was no difference between repeated and unrepeated RTs in the first epochs, $t(82) = 0.5$, $p = 0.58$, however there was a difference between repeated and unrepeated RTs in the last epochs, $t(82) = 4.4$, $p < 0.01$. Of most importance, there was a significant interaction between Condition x Emotional Valence, $F(1, 81) = 6.6$, $p < 0.05$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.076$. The benefit of repeating a display was greater following neutral images than following negative images. There was no main effect of Emotional Valence, $F < 1$. However

there was a significant Epoch x Emotional Valence interaction, $F(1, 81) = 5.1, p < 0.05, \eta_p^2 = 0.059$, in which RTs decreased more across epoch (the last three epochs vs the first three epochs) in the Neutral condition compared with the Negative condition. None of the other interactions were significant (all $F_s < 1$).

Second, we calculated the difference between repeated and unrepeated RTs collapsed across epochs 5 to 7 as contextual cueing is said to have occurred if participants were faster in the repeated displays than unrepeated in the last three epochs (see Chun & Jiang, 1998; Kunar, Flusberg & Wolfe, 2006; Kunar, Flusberg & Wolfe, 2008a; Kunar, Flusberg, Horowitz & Wolfe, 2007, Kunar & Wolfe, 2011). The results are shown in Figure 3. A 2 (Emotional Valence: Negative vs Neutral) x 2 (Condition: Repeated vs Unrepeated) mixed ANOVA with between participant factor of Emotional Valence was conducted to examine the difference in contextual cueing across the mean of the last 3 epochs depending on the valence of the stimuli viewed. There was no significant main effect of Emotional Valence, $F < 1$, however there was a main effect of Condition, $F(1, 81) = 21.5, p < 0.01, \eta_p^2 = 0.210$, where RTs for repeated trials were faster than RTs for unrepeated trials. Of most importance, the Condition x Emotional Valence interaction was significant, $F(1, 81) = 4.4, p < 0.05, \eta_p^2 = 0.051$. Post-hoc t-tests showed that there was a marginally significant difference between the repeated and unrepeated trials over the last three epochs in the Negative condition, $t(41) = 2.0, p = 0.053$ and that there was a significant difference between the repeated and unrepeated trials over the last three epochs in the Neutral condition, $t(40) = 4.4, p < 0.01$. However, the contextual cueing effect was smaller after participants had viewed a series of negative stimuli (63ms) compared to when they had seen neutral stimuli (167 ms).

Overall error rates were low at 2.0%. A mixed ANOVA on errors with within participant factors of Condition and Epoch and between participant factors of Stimuli and Emotional Valence showed that there was no significant main effects of Condition, Epoch, Stimuli or Emotional Valence (all $F_s < 1.7$, $p_s > 0.13$). The Condition x Emotional Valence interaction was significant, $F(1, 79) = 4.1$, $p < 0.05$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.049$, with error rates in the unrepeated condition being higher than in the repeated condition for the neutral stimuli (2.1% vs 1.9% for unrepeated and repeated trials, respectively) and vice versa for the negative stimuli conditions (1.8% vs 2.2% for unrepeated and repeated trials, respectively). As this pattern of data follows that of the RT data there was no sign of a speed-accuracy trade-off. The Stimuli x Emotional Valence interaction was significant, $F(1, 79) = 5.0$, $p < 0.05$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.059$; more errors were made after negative compared to neutral faces were shown (2.9% vs 1.7%, respectively) but this was opposite for scene stimuli (1.2% vs 2.4%, for negative and neutral stimuli respectively). There was also a significant three-way interaction of Condition x Epoch x Stimuli, $F(6, 474) = 2.6$, $p < 0.05$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.031$. None of the other interactions were significant (all $F_s < 1.2$). As error rates were low overall we do not discuss them further.

Figure 2 and 3 about here

There were two main findings. First, the size of the CC effect was reduced after viewing negative emotional stimuli compared with viewing neutral stimuli. Pooling data over the last three epochs, we see that the contextual cueing effect was over 100 ms greater in the neutral condition than in the negative condition. This concurs with our hypothesis that negative affective stimuli restrict the focus of attention so that the context of the display (even the

neighbouring context) was no longer processed. Second, the results showed that there was no overall difference in RTs depending on whether participants viewed negative stimuli or neutral stimuli, prior to the contextual cueing task. These results contrast with those of Olatunji et al. (2011) who found an RT advantage when participants had viewed negative stimuli prior to searching for a unique red circle target. With more complex search stimuli, producing highly inefficient search, the presentation of fearful stimuli does not appear to speed responses.

Of course there were many differences between the contextual cueing task in Experiment 1 and the visual search task presented by Olatunji et al. (2011). In the first instance some of the displays were repeated in Experiment 1 but not in Olatunji et al.'s experiments. Furthermore, the emotional stimuli were presented before each condition in Experiment 1, whereas in Olatunji et al.'s experiments an emotional face was presented prior to each trial for either 100 ms or 500 ms (with the 500 ms exposure time producing faster RTs in the fearful face condition). Olatunji et al. (2011) also had participants respond using a target localization task in which participants used a mouse to click on the position of the target rather than the two alternative forced choice (2AFC) task used in Experiment 1. Finally, Experiment 1 used a fixed set size of 12 display elements. It is possible that with more difficult search tasks RT differences might depend on set size. For example, a small set size in a difficult search task might be equivalent to a larger set size in an easier search task. Given these variations, to ensure the differences in methodology were not driving the differences in fear-facilitation results we replicated the experiment of Olatunji et al. (2011) using inefficient search stimuli in Experiments 2 and 3. Here we presented negative and neutral emotional faces (taken from the KDEF) for either 100 ms or 500 ms prior to a T versus L letter search task and had

participants respond using a 2AFC task (Experiment 2) or a target localization task (Experiment 3).

Experiment 2

Participants:

Twenty- three participants (13 female, mean age = 20.4 years) took part in the experiment. All had normal or corrected to normal visual acuity.

Apparatus and Stimuli:

The apparatus and stimuli were similar to that of Experiment 1 except that set sizes of 4, 8 and 12 were used. Please note that Olatunji et al. (2011) only used set size 12 in their experiments. We extended the set sizes to calculate a measure of search efficiency in each condition.

Procedure:

Thirty fearful faces and 30 neutral faces from the Karolinska Directed Emotional Faces (KDEF) database (Lundqvist, Flykt & Öhman, 1998) were used as emotional stimuli, replicating the procedure used by Olatunji et al. (2011). Participants completed four experimental blocks of 90 trials (30 trials per set size). Each block corresponded to four conditions: a 500 ms Negative condition, a 500 ms Neutral condition, a 100 ms Negative condition and a 100 ms Neutral condition. In the 500 ms Negative condition, participants were shown a fixation cross for 500 ms followed by a fearful face that was presented for 500 ms. The search display was then presented and participants were asked to respond to the orientation of the T, as quickly but as accurately as possible, by pressing ‘m’ if the bottom of

the T pointed to the right and 'z' if the bottom of the T pointed to the left. The 500 ms Neutral condition was similar except that participants were shown a neutral facial expression before the search stimuli appeared. In the 100 ms Negative condition, participants were again shown the fixation dot for 500 ms before being presented with the negative face for 100 ms. A blank screen was then presented for 400 ms (so that the total time between the onset of the faces and the onset of the search stimuli equalled 500 ms in all conditions) before the search stimuli appeared. The 100 ms Neutral condition was similar except that neutral faces were presented instead of negative ones. Participants completed a short practice session before each block and the presentation order of the blocks across participants was randomised.

Results and Discussion

RTs less than 200 ms and RTs greater than 3 standard deviations above the mean (for each cell) were removed as outliers. This led to the removal of 1.7% of the data. Mean correct RTs are shown in Figure 4. A 2 (Time: 500 ms vs 100 ms) x 2 (Emotional Valence: Negative vs Neutral) x 3 (Set Size: 4, 8 or 12) ANOVA of mean correct RTs showed there to be a main effect of Set Size, $F(2, 44) = 122.2$, $p < 0.01$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.053$, in which RTs increased with set size. However, there was no main effect of Emotional Valence, $F(1, 22) = 2.6$, $p = 0.12$, nor a main effect of Time, $F(1, 22) = 1.2$, $p = 0.35$. The Emotional Valence x Set Size interaction was not significant and neither were any of the other interactions (all F s < 1 , p s > 0.4).

Figure 4 about here

Overall error rates were low at 2.4%. A 2 (Time: 500 ms vs 100 ms) x 2 (Emotional Valence: Negative vs Neutral) x 3 (Set Size: 4, 8 or 12) ANOVA of error rates showed that there was no main effect of Time or of Set Size, (all $F_s < 1$). The main effect of Emotional Valence approached significance, $F(1, 22) = 3.7$, $p = 0.07$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.143$, however the difference in error rates between emotion conditions was small (2.7% and 2.0% for the Negative and Neutral condition, respectively). None of the other interactions were significant (all $F_s < 1.9$, $p_s > 0.17$). As error rates were low overall we do not discuss them further.

The results showed that presenting people with fearful faces before an inefficient search task did not lead to faster RTs compared to when participants were presented with neutral stimuli. Neither did it lead to more efficient search. These results contrast with those of Olatunji et al. (2011) who found that when using a search task for a more distinct target there was a fear-facilitation effect, at least when the stimuli were presented for 500 ms prior to the search display. Olatunji et al. (2011) report there being a 55.6 ms benefit in RTs for fearful compared to neutral conditions when they were presented for 500 ms, however when the experimental conditions were replicated using inefficient search stimuli this difference was no longer significant. Indeed, overall RTs in the fearful conditions were numerically longer than those in the neutral condition (815 ms vs 797 ms respectively). Taking the results from Experiment 1 and 2 together it seems that the fear-facilitation effect on response times does not extend to conditions of inefficient search at either relatively small or larger set sizes. One possible reason for the difference in findings could be due to the type of response required. In Experiments 1 and 2 participants performed a 2AFC target discrimination task, whereas Olatunji et al. (2011) had participants perform a localization task in which participants used the mouse to click on the target location. It could be that this change in response type affected people's search behaviour (for example, see Kunar & Wolfe, 2011, who showed that

changing response type affects search behaviour in contextual cueing). Experiment 3 examined this by having participants use the mouse to respond to the target location in an inefficient search task, after viewing negative or neutral stimuli.

Experiment 3

Participants:

Twelve participants (7 female, mean age = 19.6 years) took part in the experiment. All had normal or corrected to normal visual acuity.

Apparatus and Stimuli:

The apparatus and stimuli were similar to that of Experiment 2.

Procedure:

The procedure was similar to that of Experiment 2, except that participants used the mouse to click on the location of the target, as in the procedure of Olatunji et al. (2011). In each trial when the search display appeared a mouse cursor was presented in the centre of the screen. Participants were instructed to move the cursor and to click on the location of the target. In all conditions, participants were asked to respond as quickly and as accurately as possible. In order to be counted as a correct response, participants had to make sure that they clicked within a radius of 2.4° of the centre of the target item. Participants completed a short practice session before each block and the presentation order of the blocks across participants was randomised.

Results and Discussion

RTs less than 200 ms and RTs greater than 3 standard deviations above the mean (for each cell) were removed as outliers. This led to the removal of less than 1% of the data. Mean correct RTs are shown in Figure 5. A 2 (Time: 500 ms vs 100 ms) x 2 (Emotional Valence: Negative vs Neutral) x 3 (Set Size: 4, 8 or 12) ANOVA of mean correct RTs showed there to be a main effect of Set Size, $F(2, 22) = 98.9$, $p < 0.01$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.900$, where RTs increased with set size. However, there was no main effect of Emotional Valence, $F < 1$. The main effect of Time approached significance, $F(1, 11) = 4.1$, $p = 0.07$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.272$; RTs were slightly faster in the 100 ms condition (RT = 970ms) than in the 500 ms condition (RT = 1008ms). The Emotional Valence x Set Size interaction was not significant, $F(2, 22) = 1.3$, $p = 0.28$. Neither were any of the other interactions significant (all $F_s < 2.1$, $p_s > 0.15$).

Figure 5 about here

Overall error rates were low at 1.2%. A 2 (Time: 500 ms vs 100 ms) x 2 (Emotional Valence: Negative vs Neutral) x 3 (Set Size: 4, 8 or 12) ANOVA of error rates showed that there was no main effect of Time, Set Size or Emotion (all $F_s < 1$). The three-way interaction approached significance, $F(2, 22) = 2.8$, $p = 0.08$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.202$, however, none of the other interactions were significant (all $F_s < 2.4$, $p_s > 0.12$). As error rates were low overall we do not discuss them further.

Experiment 3 replicated the localization response type of Olatunji et al. (2011) by having participants use a mouse to click on the target location. Despite this the results were similar to those of Experiment 2 and contrast with those of Olatunji et al. (2011). Presenting people with negative faces before each trial did not lead to a benefit in response times compared to presenting them with neutral faces. Neither did it lead to more efficient search. Experiment 1 showed that presenting all the faces before the visual search task changed people's search strategy and narrowed their focus of attention in a contextual cueing task. Experiment 4 investigates whether presenting all the faces before an inefficient search task also affects people's search behaviour.

Experiment 4

Participants:

Sixteen participants (12 female, mean age = 20.6 years) took part in the experiment. All had normal or corrected to normal visual acuity.

Apparatus and Stimuli:

The apparatus and stimuli were similar to that of Experiment 2.

Procedure:

The procedure was similar to that of Experiment 2, except that participants saw all the affective faces before the visual search task started (similar to Experiment 1). For the Negative condition, participants saw twenty negative stimuli taken from the Karolinska Directed Emotional Faces (KDEF) database (Lundqvist, Flykt & Öhman, 1998) prior to the visual search displays. In the Neutral condition participants saw twenty neutral stimuli taken from the Karolinska Directed Emotional Faces (KDEF) database (Lundqvist, Flykt &

Öhman, 1998) prior to the visual search displays. Each stimulus was presented for 2 seconds. Participants completed a short practice session before each block and the presentation order of the blocks across participants was randomised.

Results and Discussion

The data from one participant was removed due to high error rates (over 50% errors). RTs less than 200 ms and RTs greater than 3 standard deviations above the mean (for each cell) were removed as outliers. This led to the removal of less than 1% of the data. Mean correct RTs are shown in Figure 6. A 2 (Emotional Valence: Negative vs Neutral) x 3 (Set Size: 4, 8 or 12) ANOVA of mean correct RTs showed there to be a main effect of Set Size, $F(2, 28) = 137.7$, $p < 0.01$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.908$, where RTs increased with set size. However, there was no main effect of Emotional Valence, $F(1, 14) = 0.6$, $p = 0.46$. Participants were not faster to respond after viewing the negative faces compared with the neutral faces. The Emotional Valence x Set Size interaction was significant, $F(2, 28) = 4.7$, $p < 0.05$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.250$. However this was in the opposite direction to what would be predicted on the basis of Olatunji et al. (2011)'s fear-facilitation results; RTs in the Negative condition increased more with set size than RTs in the Neutral condition.

Figure 6 about here

Overall error rates were low at 4.0%. A 2 (Emotional Valence: Negative vs Neutral) x 3 (Set Size: 4, 8 or 12) ANOVA of error rates showed that there was no main effect of Set Size or

Emotion (both $F_s < 2.1$, $p_s > 0.14$). Neither was the Emotional Valence x Set Size interaction significant ($F < 1$). As error rates were low overall we do not discuss them further.

Interestingly, in this experiment there was a difference in search efficiency dependent on the Emotional Valence of the stimuli that was viewed. However, it was in the opposite direction predicted by Olatunji et al. (2011) where search was *less* efficient after viewing negative faces compared with neutral faces. Similarly, in contrast to the results provided by Olatunji et al. (2011) response times, overall, were not quicker after viewing negative faces. We discuss this further in the General Discussion.

General Discussion

Previous work has suggested that viewing negative stimuli narrows the focus of attention and leads to an overall decrease in RTs. This study first examined the effect of negative images on contextual cueing and second whether there was a general speeding of RTs after viewing negative stimuli using an inefficient search task. Taking the first point, Experiment 1 showed that a smaller CC effect was obtained after showing participants negative images compared to when they viewed neutral stimuli. This was particularly true across the latter epochs of the experiment where contextual cueing should be at its maximum (e.g. Chun & Jiang, 1998, Kunar et al., 2006, 2007, 2008a, 2011). Fredrickson (2004) suggested that negative emotions lead to a narrower focus of attention (see also Easterbook, 1959, and Fenske & Eastwood, 2003). Our results support this. If the focus of attention was sufficiently narrowed to process only individual items rather than the relationship between the stimuli (e.g. target and adjacent distractors) in the negative condition then the surrounding context would not be learned. Gable and Harmon-Jones (2010) found a similar pattern occurred in the Navon task, in which

negative emotion biased the processing of individual letters at the expense of the global figure. Our results extend this to contextual cueing. In both tasks negative emotional stimuli disrupted the ability to use the context of a scene in visual processing.

An alternative theory predicting a reduced contextual cueing effect after viewing negative stimuli would be that the presence of emotional stimuli interfered with memory. If the negative images led to impairment in memory processes then the learning of the repeated contexts would be disrupted and CC would be reduced. Although possible we believe this to be unlikely. Previous research has found that, if anything, the effect of viewing negative emotional stimuli on memory leads to enhanced performance both in terms of the quantity of information remembered (e.g. Buchanan & Adolphs, 2002; Hamann, 2001) and the quality of information remembered (e.g., Ochsner, 2000; Dewhurst & Parry, 2000). This also occurs for implicit memory tasks where emotional stimuli show improved performance in priming tasks (e.g. Burton et al., 2004; Collins & Cooke, 2005; LaBar et al., 2005; Michael et al., 2005). On this basis one would predict that implicit memory for the configuration would be stronger in the negative emotion condition leading to an increased CC effect. This did not happen. Instead we propose that negative emotional stimuli narrowed the focus of attention so the surrounding distractor context was not learned.

Experiment 1 showed that viewing negative stimuli disrupted contextual cueing. However, Gable and Harmon-Jones (2010) recently showed that attentional performance may also depend on the motivational intensity of negative stimuli used. In their study they found that negative stimuli that are high in motivational intensity (e.g. fear and disgust) narrow the focus of attention whereas negative stimuli that are low in motivational intensity (e.g. sadness) do not have the same effect. The stimuli in our studies used images that were high in

motivational intensity (e.g. fearful faces and scenes with a high arousal rating). This led to a reduction in CC. However if participants were instead shown negative images of low intensity a contextual cueing effect might still be observed. It is up to future work to investigate this.

Let us now turn our attention to the second point. Olatunji et al. (2011) found that RTs to find a unique red circle in a visual search task were faster following the presentation of negative emotional stimuli. In contrast, using an inefficient T versus L letter search task, we found no benefit in RTs after participants had viewed negative stimuli. This difference did not occur due to discrepancies in methodology because Experiments 2 and 3 replicated and extended Olatunji et al.'s conditions and also failed to find an overall RT effect. This occurred using a target discrimination task (Experiment 2) and a 2AFC target localization task (Experiment 3). Experiment 4 also showed there was little difference in response times after pre-exposure to the negative stimuli prior to the search task (similar to the methodology of Experiment 1). Furthermore, in this condition, search efficiency was actually worse after viewing negative stimuli compared to neutral stimuli.

One of the main differences between Olatunji et al.'s (2011) work and the work presented here was the type of visual search stimuli used. With more complex inefficient search stimuli the fear-facilitation effect did not occur. Given that the fear facilitation effect observed in Olatunji et al.'s (2011) work was relatively small (55.6 ms) it may be that with the increased noise and variability witnessed in a more inefficient search task any facilitation effect was lost⁴ (see Watson, Maylor & Bruce, 2005, for an analogous finding on the effects of old age

⁴ As an objective measure of variation the standard deviation in the 500 ms fear condition (set size 12 to match that of Olatunji. et al's work) here was 256 ms versus 120 ms in Olatunji et al.'s work.

on enumeration and search performance). Furthermore, the target in Olatunji et al.'s work was likely to have had a high activation on a visual saliency map, given that its colour could guide attention using both bottom-up and top-down processes (e.g., Wolfe, 2007, Wolfe, Cave & Franzel, 1989). If fear increased arousal in this condition this could boost the already strong bottom-up signal, leading to a visible increase in RT. In contrast, in order to determine the location of a T in Ls (for example, in Experiments 2 to 4), each stimulus would need to be fixated in turn as the target would have a relatively low activation in the saliency map. Any arousal facilitation effect was likely to be lost as people laboriously searched through the display.

Interestingly, with pre-exposure to the negative stimuli before the visual search task, search was less efficient (as measured by the RT x Set Size function) compared to when participants viewed the neutral stimuli (Experiment 4). This did not occur in Experiments 2 and 3 when participants were presented with the valenced face before each trial. The results suggest that presenting all of the emotional stimuli at the start of the experiment led to a change in attentional strategy throughout the experiment, narrowing the focus of attention (supporting evidence of this comes from the lack of a significant Condition x Epoch x Emotional Valence three-way interaction in Experiment 1, showing that the effect of Emotional Valence did not change across time). This change in strategy affected search performance overall (see also Smilek et al., 2006, for evidence of strategy effects in visual search). For example, in Experiment 1 with a narrower focus of attention, the repeated context was processed to a lesser degree, leading to a reduction in contextual cueing, whereas in Experiment 4, with a narrower focus of attention fewer items could be processed in one glance. This meant that, with less peripheral processing participants needed to serially search the display more before finding the target item.

Our results suggest that the fear-facilitation effect shown by Olatunji et al. (2011) is dependent on the difficulty of the visual search task. Becker (2009) also found that the presence of a fearful face improved search efficiency for an image of a house among other pictures. However, we suggest the search task presented by Becker (2009) was easier than that presented here for two reasons. First the set sizes used by Becker (2009) were lower than those presented here. Despite this, even at our low set sizes we did not see an RT benefit. Second, the house image used as a target by Becker (2009) was perceptually different to the rest of the distractor stimuli. According to Duncan and Humpheys' (1989) this would have the effect of creating an easier search task, allowing the fear-facilitation effect to have impact. Nevertheless in more complex search, using highly inefficient search stimuli, the fear-facilitation effect of viewing negative stimuli, prior to a visual search task, was no longer apparent. Instead viewing negative emotional stimuli removed the RT advantage of presenting repeated displays. Our results add to the growing literature that emotional stimuli affect visual processing - in particular viewing negative stimuli impairs our ability to process important contextual information.

References

- Abrams, R. A., & Christ, S. E. (2003). Motion onset captures attention. *Psychological Science*, 14, 427-432.
- Abrams, R. A., & Christ, S. E. (2005). The onset of receding motion captures attention: Comment on Franconeri & Simons (2003). *Perception & Psychophysics*, 67, 219-223.
- Anderson, A.K., Christoff, K., Panitz, D., De Rosa, E., & Gabrieli, J.D. (2003). Neural correlates of the automatic processing of threat facial signals. *Journal of Neuroscience*, 23, 5627–5633.
- Becker, M. W. (2009). Panic search: Fear produces efficient visual search for nonthreatening objects. *Psychological Science*, 20, 435–437.
- Blagrove, E. & Watson, D.G. (2010). Visual marking and facial affect: Can an emotional face be ignored? *Emotion*, 10, 147-168.
- Brady, T. F. and Chun, M. M. (2007). Spatial constraints on learning in visual search: Modeling contextual cueing. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception & Performance*, 33(4), 798-815.
- Burton, L.A., Rabin, L., Vardy, S.B., Frohlich, J., Wyatt, G., Dimitri, D., Constante, S., & Guterman, E. (2004). Gender differences in implicit and explicit memory for affective passages. *Brain and Cognition*, 54, 218-224.

Buchanan, T.W., & Adolphs, R. (2002). The role of the human amygdala in emotional modulation of long-term declarative memory. In S. Moore & M. Oaksford (Eds.), *Emotional Cognition: From Brain to Behavior* (pp. 9-34). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.

Chajut, E. and Algom, D. (2003). Selective attention improves under stress: Implications for theories of social cognition. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85, 231-248.

Chun, M. M., & Jiang, Y. (1998). Contextual cueing: implicit learning and memory of visual context guides spatial attention. *Cognitive Psychology*, 36, 28-71

Collins, M.A., & Cooke, A. (2005). A transfer investigating implicit memory for emotional words. *Neuropsychologia*, 43, 1529-1545.

Dewhurst, S.A., & Parry, L.A. (2000). Emotionality, distinctiveness, and recollective experience. *European Journal of Cognitive Psychology*, 12, 541-551.

Duncan, J. & Humphreys, G. W. (1989). Visual search and stimulus similarity. *Psychological Review*, 96, 433-458.

Easterbrook, J. A. (1959). The effect of emotion on cue utilization and the organisation of behaviour. *Psychological Review*, 66, 183–201.

Fenske, M.J. & Eastwood, J.D. (2003). Modulation of focused attention by faces expressing emotion: Evidence from flanker tasks. *Emotion*, 3, 327-343.

Flykt, A. (2006). Preparedness for Action: Responding to the Snake in the Grass. *The American Journal of Psychology*, 119, 29-43

Fox, E., Griggs, L. & Mouchlianitis, E (2007). The Detection of Fear-Relevant Stimuli: Are Guns Noticed as Quickly as Snakes? *Emotion*, 7, 697-696.

Fredrickson, B. L. (1998). What good are positive emotions? *Review of General Psychology*, 2, 300–319.

Fredrickson, B. L. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology. *American Psychologist*, 56, 218–226.

Fredrickson, B. L. (2004). The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 359, 1367–1377.

Frischen, A., Eastwood, J. D., & Smilek, D. (2008). Visual search for faces with emotional expressions. *Psychological Bulletin*, 134, 662–676.

Gable, P. A., & Harmon-Jones, E. (2010). The blues broaden, but the nasty narrows: Attentional consequences of negative affects low and high in motivational intensity. *Psychological Science*, 21, 211-215.

Hamann, S. (2001). *Cognitive and Cognitive Science*, 5, 394-400.

Huguet, P., Galvaing, M. P., Monteil, J. M., & Dumas, F. (1999). Social presence effects in the Stroop task: Further evidence for an attentional view of social facilitation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 77, 1011–1025.

Jiang, Y., & Chun, M. M. (2001). Selective Attention Modulates Implicit Learning. *The Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology (A)*, 54(4), 1105-1124.

Johnson, J.S., Woodman, G.F., Braun, E., & Luck, S.J. (2007). Implicit memory influences the allocation of attention in visual cortex. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, 14, 834-839.

Kapp, B. S., Whalen, P. J., Supple, W. F., & Amygdaloid contributions to conditioned arousal information processing. In J. P. Aggleton (Ed.), *The amygdala: aspects of emotion, memory, and mental dysfunction* New York, NY: Wiley-Liss.

Klein, R.M. (1988). Inhibitory tagging system facilitates visual search. *Nature*, 334, 430-431.

Kunar, M.A., Flusberg, S.J., Horowitz, T.S., & Wolfe, J.M., (2007). Does contextual cueing guide the deployment of attention? *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, 33, 816-828.

Kunar, M.A., Flusberg, S.J., & Wolfe, J.M. (2006). Contextual cueing by global features. *Perception & Psychophysics*, 68, 1204 - 1216.

Kunar, M.A., Flusberg, S.J., & Wolfe, J.M. (2008a). Time to Guide: Evidence for Delayed Attentional Guidance in Contextual Cueing. *Visual Cognition*, 16, 804-825.

Kunar, M.A., Flusberg, S.J., & Wolfe, J.M. (2008b). The role of memory and restricted context in repeated visual search. *Perception & Psychophysics*, 70, 314-328.

Kunar, M.A., Humphreys, G.W., Smith, K.J., & Hulleman, J. (2003). What is marked in visual marking?: Evidence for effects of configuration in preview search. *Perception and Psychophysics*, 65, 982-996.

Kunar, M.A. & Wolfe, J.M. (2011). Target Absent Trials in Configural Contextual Cueing. *Attention, Perception and Psychophysics*. 73 (7), 2077-2091.

LaBar, K.S., Torpey, D.C., Cook, C.A., Johnson, S.R., Warren, L.H., Burke, J. Bohmer, K.A. (2005). Emotional enhancement of perceptual priming is preserved early-stage Alzheimer's disease. *Neuropsychologia*, 43, 1824-1837.

Lang, P. J., Bradley, M. M., & Cuthbert, B. N. (2001). *International Affective Picture System (IAPS): Instruction manual and affective ratings* (Tech. Rep. No. A-5). Gainesville: University of Florida, Center for Research in Psychophysiology.

Lundqvist, D., Flykt, A., & Öhman, A. (1998). The Karolinska Directed Emotional Faces - KDEF, CD ROM from Department of Clinical Neuroscience, Psychology section, Karolinska Institutet, ISBN 91-630-7164-9.

McLeod, P., Driver, J. & Crisp, J. (1988). Visual-search for a conjunction of movement and form is parallel. *Nature*, 332, 154-155.

Michael, T., Ehlers, A., & Halligan, S.L. (2005). Enhanced priming for trauma-related material in posttraumatic stress disorder. *Emotion*, 5, 103-112

Most, S.B., Chun, M.M., Widders, D.M., & Zald, D.H. (2005). Attentional rubbernecking: Cognitive control and personality in emotion-induced blindness. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, 12, 654-661.

Most, S.B. & Wang, L. (2011). Dissociating spatial attention and awareness in emotion-induced blindness. *Psychological Science*, 22, 300-305.

Navon, D. (1977). Forest before trees: The precedence of global features in visual perception. *Cognitive Psychology*, 9, 353–383.

Ochsner, K.N. (2000). Are affective events richly “remembered” or simply familiar? The experience and process of recognizing feelings past. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 129, 242-261.

Öhman, A. Flykt, A & Esteves, F. (2001) Emotion Drives Attention: Detecting the Snake in the Grass. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 130, No. 3, 466-478

Olatunji, B. O., Ciesielski, B., Armstrong, T. & Zald, D. (2011). Emotional expressions and visual search efficiency: Specificity and effects of anxiety symptoms. *Emotion*, 11(5), 1073-1079

Olivers, C.N.L., & Nieuwenhuis, S. (2006) The beneficial effects of additional task load, positive affect, and instruction on the attentional blink.,. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, 32, 364-79

Olson, I.R. & Chun, M. M. (2002). Perceptual constraints on implicit learning of spatial context. *Visual Cognition*, 9(3), 273-302.

Pacheco-Unguetti, A.P., Acosta, A., Callejas, A. & Lupiáñez, J. (2010). Attention and Anxiety: Different Attentional Functioning Under State and Trait Anxiety. *Psychological Science*, (21), 298-304

Peterson, M.S. & Kramer, A.F. (2001). Attentional guidance of the eyes by contextual information and abrupt onsets. *Perception & Psychophysics*, 63, 1239-1249.

Phelps, E. A., & LeDoux, J. E. (2005). Contributions of the amygdala to emotion processing: From animal models to human behavior. *Neuron*, 48, 175–187.

Phelps, E. A., Ling, S., & Carrasco, M. (2006). Emotion facilitates perception and potentiates the perceptual benefit of attention. *Psychological Science*, 17, 292-299.

Sanders, G. S., Baron, R. S., & Moore, D. (1978) Distraction and social comparison as mediators of social facilitation effects. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 14, 291-303.

Schankin, A., & Schubö, A. (2009). Cognitive processes facilitated by contextual cueing. Evidence from event-related brain potentials. *Psychophysiology*, 46, 668-679.

Smilek, D., Enns, J., Eastwood, J. & Merikle, P. (2006). Relax! Cognitive strategy influences visual search. *Visual Cognition*, 14, 543-564

Treisman, A. M. & Gelade, G. (1980). Feature-integration theory of attention. *Cognitive Psychology*, 12, 97-136.

Vuilleumier, P., Armony, J.L., Driver, J., & Dolan, R.J. (2001). Effects of attention and emotion on face processing in the human brain: An event-related fMRI study. *Neuron*, 30, 829–841.

Wadlinger, H. A., & Isaacowitz, D. M. (2006). Positive mood broadens visual attention to positive stimuli. *Motivation and Emotion*, 30, 89–101.

Wachtel, P.L. (1968). Anxiety, attention, and coping with threat. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 73, 137–143.

Watson, D.G. & Humphreys, G.W. (1997). Visual Marking: Prioritizing selection for new objects by top-down attentional inhibition of old objects. *Psychological Review*, 104, 1, 90-122.

Watson, D.G. & Humphreys, G.W. (1998). Visual marking of moving objects: A role for top-down feature based inhibition in selection. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, 24, 946-962.

Watson, D.G., Maylor, E.A., & Bruce, L.A.M. (2005). Search, enumeration and aging: Eye movement requirements cause age-equivalent performance in enumeration but not in search tasks. *Psychology and Aging, 20*, 226-240.

Wells, A., & Matthews, G. (1994). *Attention and emotion: A clinical perspective*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Wolfe, J. M. (2007). Guided Search 4.0: Current Progress with a model of visual search. In W. Gray (Ed.), *Integrated Models of Cognitive Systems* (pp. 99-119). New York: Oxford.

Wolfe, J.M., Cave, K.R., & Franzel, S.L. (1989). Guided search: An alternative to the feature integration model for visual search. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance, 15*, 419-433.

Wolfe, J.M., & Horowitz, T.S. (2004). What attributes guide the deployment of visual attention and how do they do it? *Nature Reviews Neuroscience, 5*, 1-7.

Wolfe, J.M., Klemm, N. & Dahlen, K. (2000). Postattentive vision. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance, 26*, 693-716.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank Aashni Bhansali, Anisa Noon, Kaneesha Bose, Oliver Stoney, Daniela Mackie, Philippa Harrison and Anna Heinen for their assistance with data collection. The authors would also like to thank Anders Flykt and an anonymous reviewer for their helpful comments.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. An example visual search display for the contextual cueing task. The target is a T among rotated Ls.

Figure 2. Mean correct RTs (ms) across epoch for the (a) Negative Stimulus group and (b) Neutral Stimulus group for Repeated and Unrepeated trials in Experiment 1. Error bars represent the standard error.

Figure 3. Mean correct RTs (ms) averaged over the last three epochs for the Negative Stimulus group and Neutral Stimulus group for Repeated and Unrepeated trials in Experiment 1. Error bars represent the standard error.

Figure 4. Mean correct RTs (ms) for all conditions in Experiment 2 across set size. Error bars represent the standard error.

Figure 5. Mean correct RTs (ms) for all conditions in Experiment 3 across set size. Error bars represent the standard error.

Figure 6. Mean correct RTs (ms) for all conditions in Experiment 4 across set size. Error bars represent the standard error.

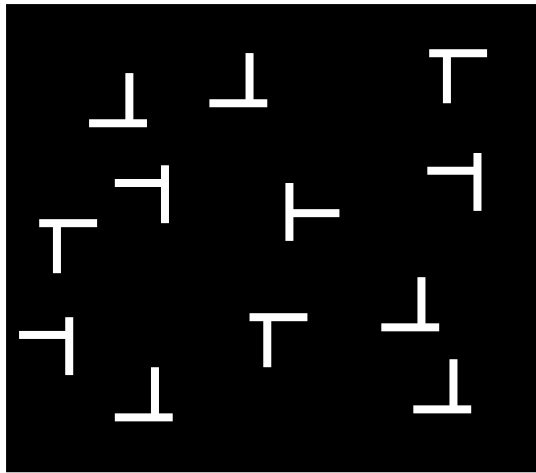
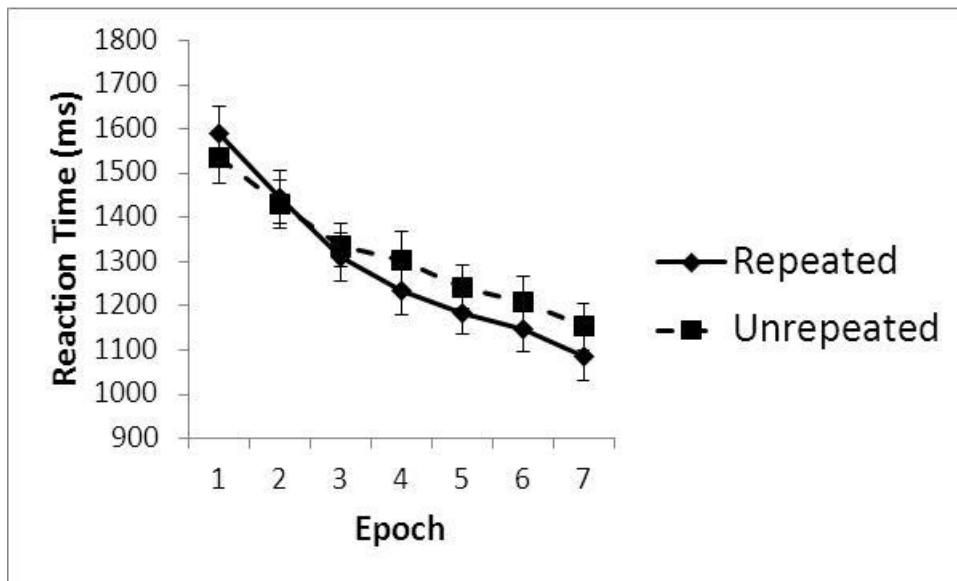


Figure 1

a)



b)

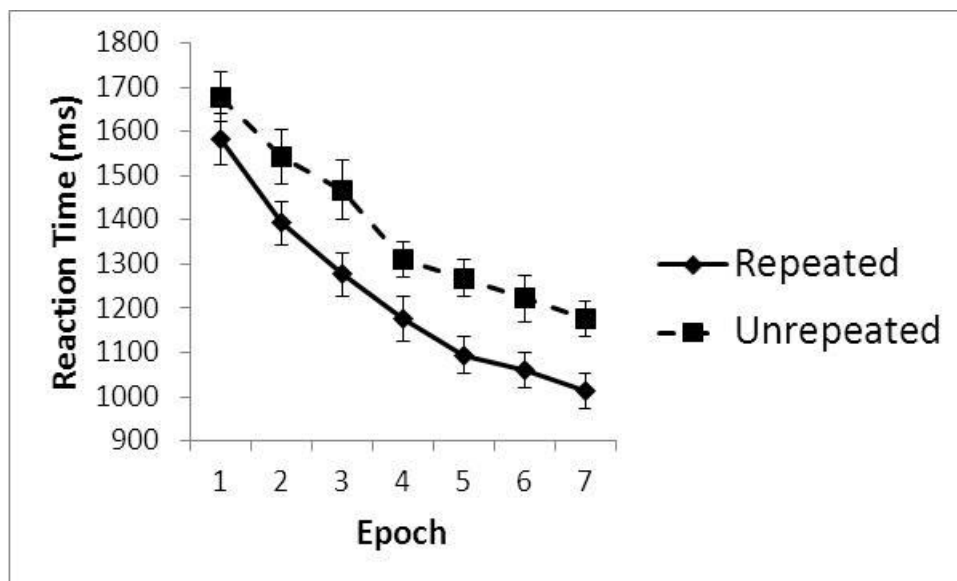


Figure 2

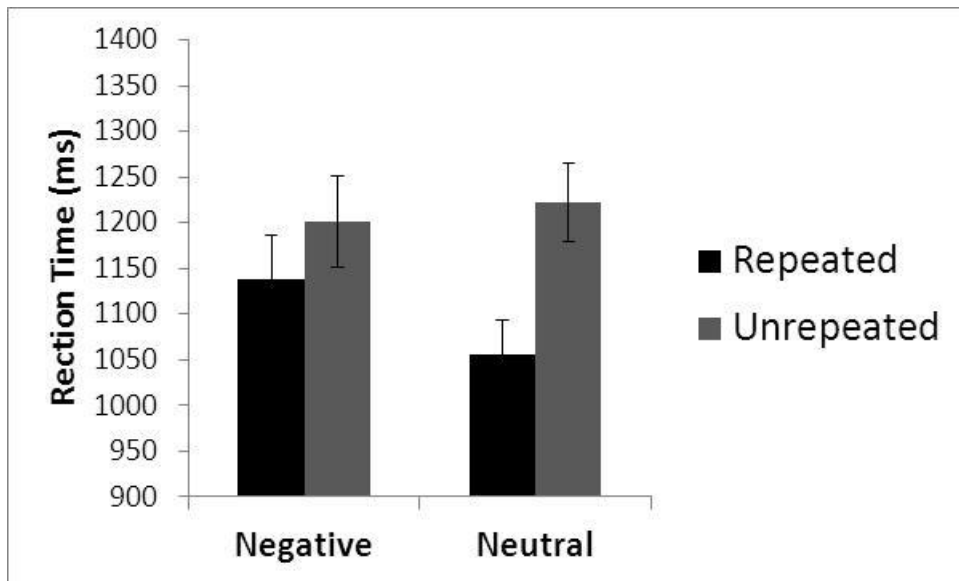


Figure 3

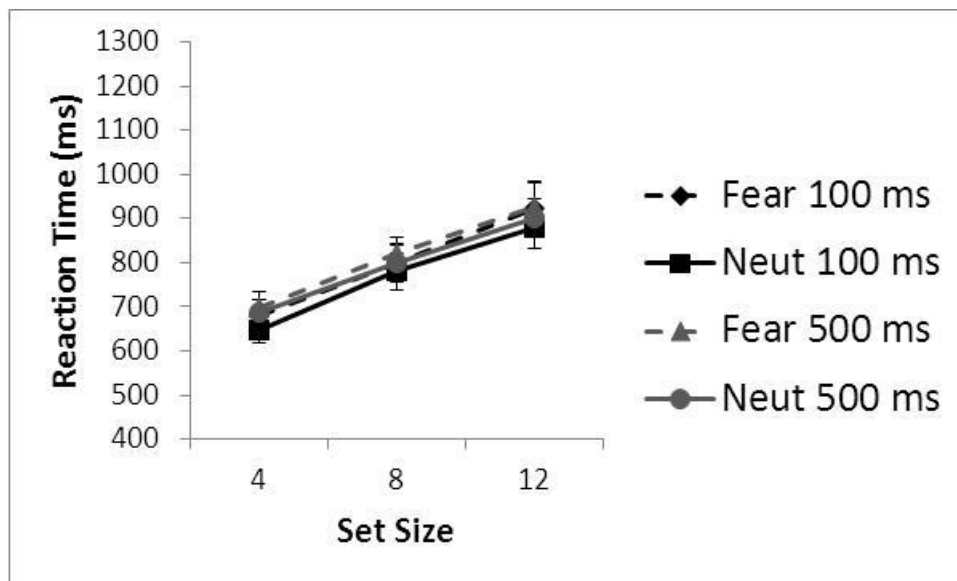


Figure 4

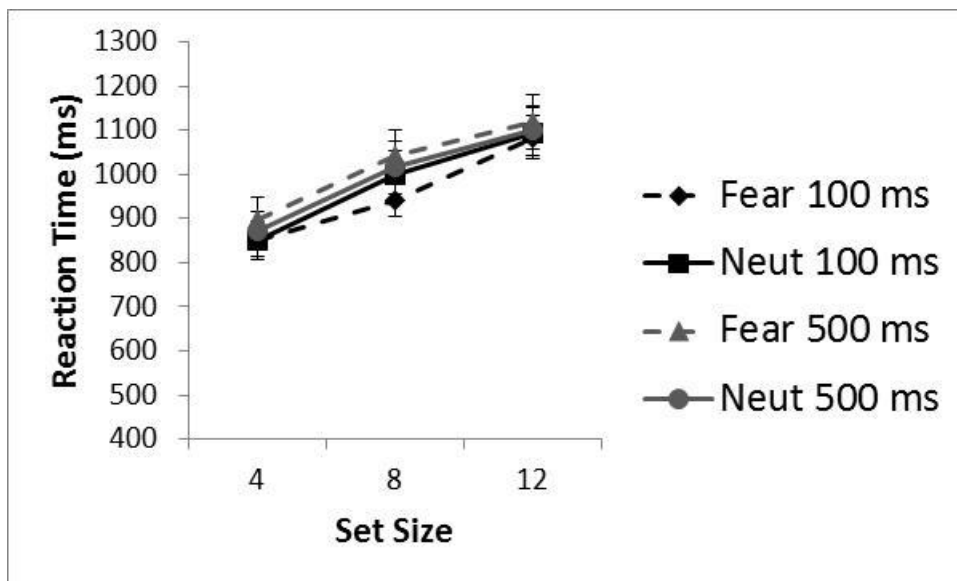


Figure 5

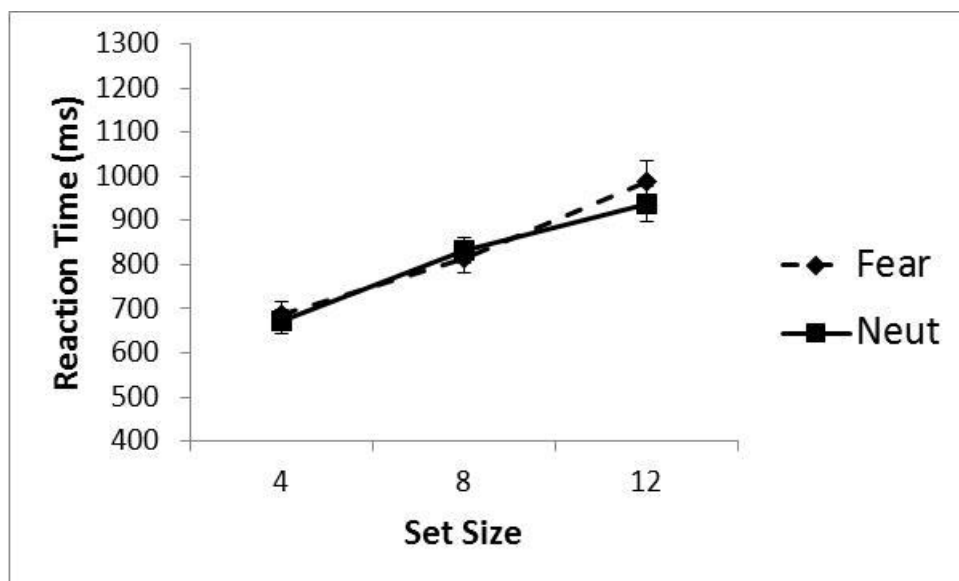


Figure 6